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FULLY NONPARAMETRIC EMPIRICAL BAYES ESTIMATION VIA  
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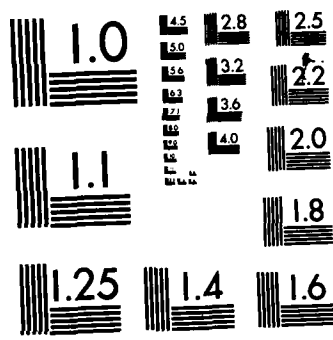
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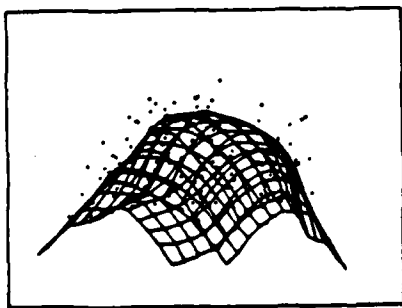
# FULLY NONPARAMETRIC EMPIRICAL BAYES ESTIMATION VIA PROJECTION PURSUIT

*M. Vernon Johns*

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**FULLY NONPARAMETRIC EMPIRICAL BAYES ESTIMATION  
VIA PROJECTION PURSUIT**

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(Dedicated to Herbert Robbins on his 70th birthday)

The fully nonparametric formulation of the empirical Bayes estimation problem considers  $m$  populations characterized by conditional (sampling) distributions chosen independently by some unspecified random mechanism. No parametric constraints are imposed on the family of possible sampling distributions or on the prior mechanism which selects them. The quantity to be estimated subject to squared-error loss for each population is defined by a functional  $T(F)$  where  $F$  is the population sampling cdf. The empirical Bayes estimator is based on  $n$  iid observations from each population where  $n > 1$ . Asymptotically optimal procedures for this problem typically employ consistent nonparametric estimators of certain nonlinear conditional expectation functions. In this study a particular projection pursuit algorithm is used for this purpose. The proposed method is applied to the estimation of population means for several simulated data sets and one familiar real world data set. Certain possible extensions are discussed.

*Additional papers  
on nonparametric estimation, etc.*

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## 1. Introduction.

The purpose of this paper is to show how an old idea may be effectively implemented using new technology. The old idea is the notion of fully nonparametric empirical Bayes estimation, which was introduced by the author in a paper (Johns 1957) directly inspired by the fundamental paper of Robbins (1955). The new technique is computer based projection pursuit regression analysis.

The fully nonparametric approach to empirical Bayes estimation differs from the original Robbins formulation in that it does not require the specification of a parametric family for the conditional (sampling) distributions of the independent component populations. Neither formulation makes parametric assumptions about the prior distribution of the quantity being estimated. This is in contrast to the case of "parametric" empirical Bayes estimation (see e.g., Efron-Morris, 1975) where parametric models are specified for both the conditional and prior distributions, and the "restricted" case where the estimators are constrained to have particular simple form (see Robbins 1983). It should be noted that the fully nonparametric version of the problem requires that at least two observations be obtained from each component population.

When the empirical Bayes approach was first introduced, and for some time thereafter, it seemed that application of the methods to real world data would not often be feasible because of computational difficulties and the possibility that a very large number of component populations might be needed before approximately optimal results could be obtained. Indeed, one advantage of the parametric approach, or the restriction to linear forms of estimation, is the increased capacity to deal with real data sets of modest size at the cost of some potential loss of asymptotic efficiency. The original version of the fully nonparametric methodology (Johns, 1957) with which this paper is principally concerned, was of little practical use in a world where large scale digital computers had barely appeared on the scene. Fortunately, the present widespread availability of computational power and the development of sophisticated statistical software has opened up new possibilities.

One of the central requirements for dealing with the fully nonparametric empirical Bayes problem is the estimation of a conditional expectation function of unknown form involving several variables. In the original paper (Johns, 1957) a pointwise consistent

estimator was proposed based on successive refinements of a partition of  $d$ -dimensional space. A convergence result (Lemma 5), which in a later incarnation has become known as the generalized Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem, was then used to show convergence to the Bayes optimal risk for the proposed empirical Bayes estimator. Some of these results could be regarded as primitive precursors of the more recent work of Stone (1981). In the last few years several other sophisticated methods for the nonparametric estimation of conditional expectation (regression) have been proposed. These include kernel smoothers, nearest neighbor estimates, recursive partitioning, and, notably, projection pursuit regression as proposed by Friedman and Stuetzle (1981). A comprehensive discussion of projection pursuit methods may be found in Huber (1985) where it is noted that, almost alone among multivariate procedures, they avoid many of the difficulties associated with high dimensionality and the presence of uninformative observations.

In the present study the regression aspect of the fully nonparametric empirical Bayes estimation procedure has been dealt with by substituting a projection pursuit regression scheme for the original conditional expectation estimator. The particular algorithm used is called The Smooth Multiple Additive Regression Technique (SMART) and is detailed in Friedman (1984). In section 2 the problem and the proposed solution are described more formally. In section 3 the proposed method is applied to several data sets generated by computer simulation and the results are discussed. The method is also applied to the famous Efron-Morris baseball data. Section 4 contains concluding remarks and acknowledgements.

## 2. The Problem and the Proposed Method.

We consider  $m$  populations from each of which  $n$  observations are obtained. Let these observations be given by

$$X_{ij} = \text{the } i\text{th observation from the } j\text{th population,}$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

We assume that for each  $j$  the  $X_{ij}$ 's are iid with common random cdf  $F_j$ , where  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_m$  are assumed to be selected independently according to some unknown prior

probability measure over all cdf's. Let  $T(F)$  = a real-valued functional defined on all cdf's which represents the "parameter" to be estimated for each population subject to squared-error loss, i.e.,  $\theta_j = T(F_j)$ , and for any estimator  $\hat{\theta}_j$  the loss incurred is  $(\hat{\theta}_j - \theta_j)^2$ . If  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_m)$  and  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_m)$  then the average loss for the  $m$  component populations is

$$(1) \quad L(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = (\hat{\theta} - \theta)(\hat{\theta} - \theta)' / m.$$

The corresponding average risk is then

$$(2) \quad R(\hat{\theta}) = E\{L(\hat{\theta}, \theta)\},$$

where the expectation operator  $E$  reflects the randomness in the selection of the  $F_j$ 's as well as the  $X_{ij}$ 's. Initially, we consider functionals of the form

$$(3) \quad T(F) = E_F\{h(X)\},$$

where  $h(\cdot)$  is a specified function and  $X$  has cdf  $F$ . For example, if the quantity we wish to estimate is the mean of  $F$  we would set

$$T(F) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dF(x).$$

In section 4 we indicate a method for dealing with more general functionals.

We observe that for each  $j$ , the Bayes optimal estimate of  $\theta_j = T(F_j)$  under squared-error loss is

$$\hat{\theta}_j = E\{\theta_j | X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n\}.$$

If the observation  $X_{kj}$  is omitted from the data for the  $j$ th population for some  $k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , then the corresponding Bayes estimator for  $\theta_j$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta}_j(k) &= E\{\theta_j | X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq k\}, \\ &= E\{E\{h(X_{kj}) | F_j\} | X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq k\}, \\ (4) \quad &= E\{h(X_{kj}) | X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq k\}, \\ &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \phi(X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq k). \end{aligned}$$

where  $\phi$  is a fixed symmetric function of  $n-1$  arguments independent of  $j$  and  $k$ . Since  $\phi$  is a conditional expectation function, it may be estimated using any suitable nonparametric regression method applied to the data from all  $m$  populations. To make maximum use of the information available for the estimation of  $\phi$ , we may organize the  $mn$  observations as follows:

<u>"Dependent"</u>	<u>"Independent"</u>
$h(X_{11})$	$X_{21}, X_{31}, \dots, X_{n1}$
$h(X_{21})$	$X_{11}, X_{31}, \dots, X_{n1}$
.	.
.	.
$h(X_{n1})$	$X_{11}, X_{21}, \dots, X_{n-1,1}$
$h(X_{12})$	$X_{22}, X_{32}, \dots, X_{n2}$
.	.
.	.
(5) $h(X_{nm})$	$X_{1m}, X_{2m}, \dots, X_{n-1,m}$

Because of the symmetry of the function  $\phi$  we should increase this list by including all permutations of the "independent" values, but this may be avoided by first ordering the observations from each population so that  $X_{1j} \leq X_{2j} \leq \dots \leq X_{nj}$  for each  $j$ . This, of course, leads to a different (nonsymmetric) regression function, say  $\psi$ , which is defined only for ordered arguments but contains the same information as  $\phi$ . Henceforth, we shall assume that the  $X_{ij}$ 's are ordered in this fashion. If  $\hat{\psi}_m$  represents a suitable nonparametric regression estimate of  $\psi$  based on the available data, then the proposed empirical Bayes estimator of  $\theta_j$  is

$$(6) \quad \hat{\theta}_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \hat{\psi}_m(X_{ij}, 1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq k),$$

for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . The averaging over  $n$  values of  $\hat{\psi}$  indicated in (6) results in a slight improvement in the performance of the estimator (see (2.47), p.656 of Johns, 1957).

The original formulation of the fully nonparametric empirical Bayes estimation problem considered the component problems in sequence and concentrated on the risk for the

$m$ th problem using the estimated conditional expectation based on the data from the previous  $m - 1$  problems. Strictly speaking, the original asymptotic optimality result applies to the present case only if we modify the procedure indicated above so that for each  $j$  the estimate of  $\psi$  involves only data from the other  $m - 1$  component problems. Then, for the modified procedure and the original partition estimate of  $\psi$ , if we let  $\hat{\theta}$  be the vector of  $\hat{\theta}_j$ 's given by (6) the following result holds:

**THEOREM** (Johns, 1957) If  $E\{h^2(X)\} < \infty$ , then

$$(7) \quad R_n^* < \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} R_n(\hat{\theta}) < R_{n-1}^*$$

where  $R_n^*$  = the Bayes optimal risk for a component problem with sample size  $n$ , and  $R_n(\hat{\theta})$  is the average risk using the empirical Bayes estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  where the sample size is  $n$  for each component problem.

The modified procedure is too cumbersome for application to actual data since it entails repeated estimation of the function  $\psi$ . It seems plausible that (7) will hold for the unmodified procedure based on any well behaved estimator of the function  $\psi$  for which the pointwise convergence in probability to  $\psi$  as  $m$  becomes large is asymptotically unaffected by the values of the  $X_{ij}$ 's for any fixed  $j$ .

In applications, if  $n$  is large and  $m$  is not very large, the estimate of  $\hat{\psi}_m$  may be unstable and it may be desirable to substitute a summary statistic of lower dimension for the  $n - 1$  arguments of  $\psi$ . If this summary statistic is well chosen the resulting loss of asymptotic efficiency may be slight. One possibility would be to replace the conditioning  $X_{ij}$ 's by a two dimensional statistic consisting of robust estimators of location and scale. In some of the examples considered in the present paper, a less drastic reduction in dimension has been obtained by replacing the  $n - 1$  ordered  $X_{ij}$ 's by  $d$  averages of  $s$  successive ordered values where  $ds = n - 1$ . It may be shown (see, e.g., Johns 1974) that such averages of blocks of order statistics retain most of the sample information about the underlying distribution.

As was mentioned in the introduction, the method used to estimate the required conditional expectation in the present study is the SMART algorithm of Friedman (1984). Given a number of iid observations of a dependent variable  $Y$  and the corresponding values

of "independent" variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p$ , the algorithm estimates  $E\{Y|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p\}$  nonparametrically by an expression of the form

$$(8) \quad \sum_{r=1}^s \beta_r f_r(\mathbf{a}\mathbf{X}'),$$

where  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$  and  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p)$ . The  $a_i$ 's, and the functions  $f_r()$  are suitably normalized to avoid identifiability difficulties. The  $a_i$ 's,  $\beta_r$ 's,  $f_r()$ 's and number of terms in (8) are chosen to satisfy a least squares criterion, where the functions are generated by a variable span smoother.

### 3. Examples.

The proposed nonparametric empirical Bayes estimation procedure incorporating the SMART algorithm as implemented on a VAX11/750 computer was applied to six sets of simulated data and one set of real data. For each example, the quantities being estimated (i.e., the  $\theta_j$ 's) are the means of the component populations. The simulated data sets consist in each case of either 50 or 100 component populations. These numbers are perhaps larger than would be expected in some applications to real world data but were chosen to yield reasonably stable and interpretable results. The sample sizes associated with the component problems are 5 or 6 for the 100 component cases and 11 for the 50 component cases.

The conditional distributions are either normal with mean =  $\theta$  and standard deviation =  $\sigma$ , or logistic with mean =  $\theta$  and scale =  $\sigma$ . The prior distributions for  $\theta$  are either normal with mean =  $\mu$  and standard deviation =  $\tau$ , or the longtailed distribution having density

$$(9) \quad g(\theta) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi(1 + \theta^4)}$$

This distribution has mean = 0 and standard deviation = 1. For two examples the scale parameter  $\sigma$  for the conditional distribution was chosen randomly from three possible values. The summary statistic on which the predicted values of  $\theta$  are based is either all  $n - 1$  available observations or, for  $n = 11$ , the set of five averages of two adjacent order

statistics. The setup for each of the six cases simulated is given in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Cases Simulated

Case Label	Conditional Distr.	Prior Distr. (for $\theta$ )	No.of Pops. (m)	Sample Size (n)	Prior Mean ( $\mu$ )	Prior S.D. ( $\tau$ )	Cond. Scale* ( $\sigma$ )	Summary Statist.
(a)	Normal	Normal	100	5	25	2	2,4,6	all 4 obs.
(b)	Normal	Normal	100	5	25	2	4	all 4 obs.
(c)	Normal	Normal	50	11	25	2	6	5 avgs.
(d)	Normal	Longtail	100	5	0	1	2	all 4 obs.
(e)	Logistic	Normal	100	6	0	2	3	all 5 obs.
(f)	Logistic	Longtail	50	11	0	1	4,5,6	5 avgs.

\* Each value has equal prior probability and is independent of  $\theta$ .

TABLE 2

Summary of the Simulation Results

Case Label	Conditional Distr.	Prior Distr. (for $\theta$ )	Bayes Opt. Risk (Approx.)	Asymptotic BLUE M.S.E.	Observed BLUE M.S.E.	Observed EB M.S.E.
(a)	Normal	Normal*	1.67	3.73	4.29	1.98
(b)	Normal	Normal	1.78	3.20	3.32	1.57
(c)	Normal	Normal	1.80	3.27	3.38	2.58
(d)	Normal	Longtail	0.44	0.80	0.69	0.45
(e)	Logistic	Normal	2.12	4.50	4.50	2.69
(f)	Logistic	Longtail*	0.86	7.00	6.98	3.40

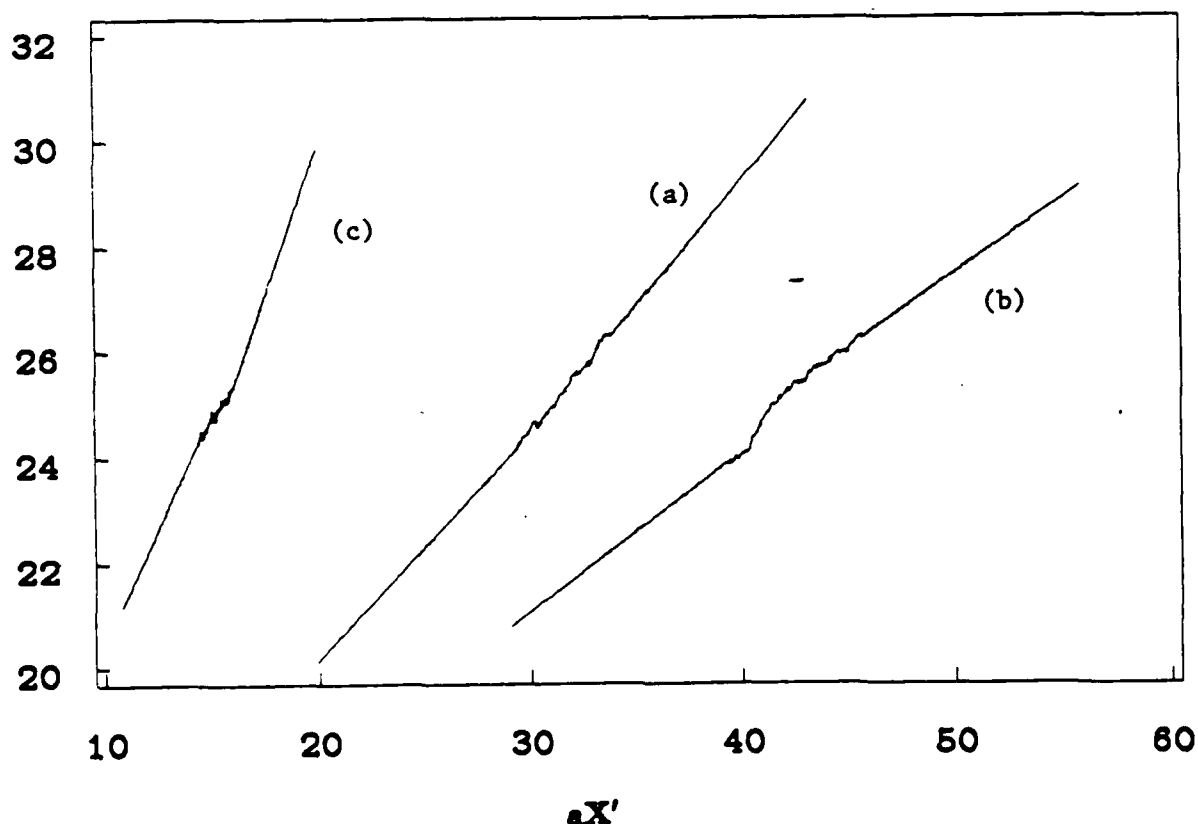
\* The values of sigma are selected randomly from among three values.

The numerical results obtained from the six simulations are summarized in Table 2. The last column shows the actual mean squared error (M.S.E.) produced by the fully

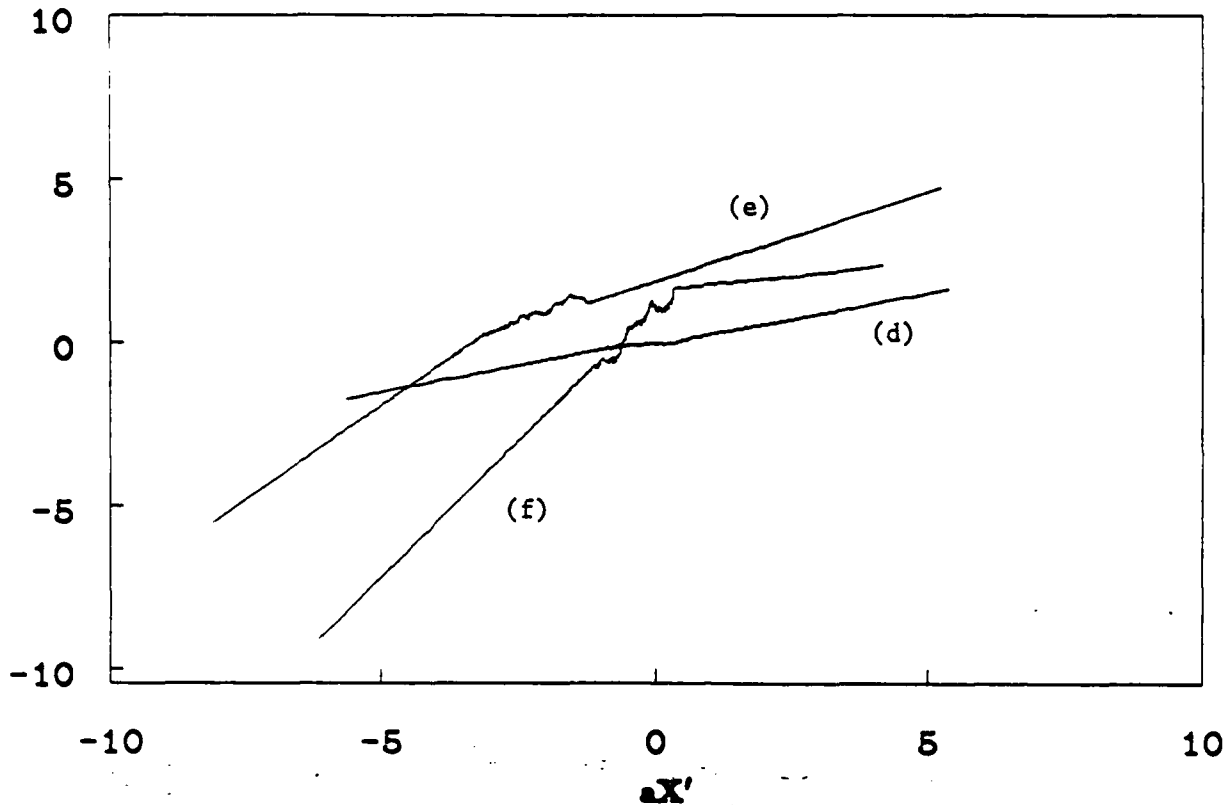
nonparametric empirical Bayes procedure. For comparison purposes both the average observed variances and the true (asymptotic) variances for the best linear unbiased estimators (BLUE's) are shown. For the normal cases, of course, the BLUE is simply the sample mean. Approximate values for the Bayes optimal risk are also given. These are based on linear Bayes estimators and asymptotic variances so they are only exact for cases (b) and (c) where both the conditional and the prior distributions are normal. It is encouraging to note that the empirical Bayes M.S.E. is substantially smaller than the BLUE variance for each of the examples. Furthermore, the empirical Bayes M.S.E. is in the vicinity of the Bayes optimal risk for all cases but one (example (f)).

The actual regression functions produced by the SMART algorithm are plotted in Figures 1 and 2. In all cases the algorithm concluded that only a single function  $f_1$  was required in expression (7) for an adequate description of the data. When interpreting the plots it should be borne in mind that a different direction vector  $\mathbf{a}$  is associated with each function. The vector  $\mathbf{X}$  represents the appropriate set of "independent" variables.

FIGURE 1  
SMART Regression Functions



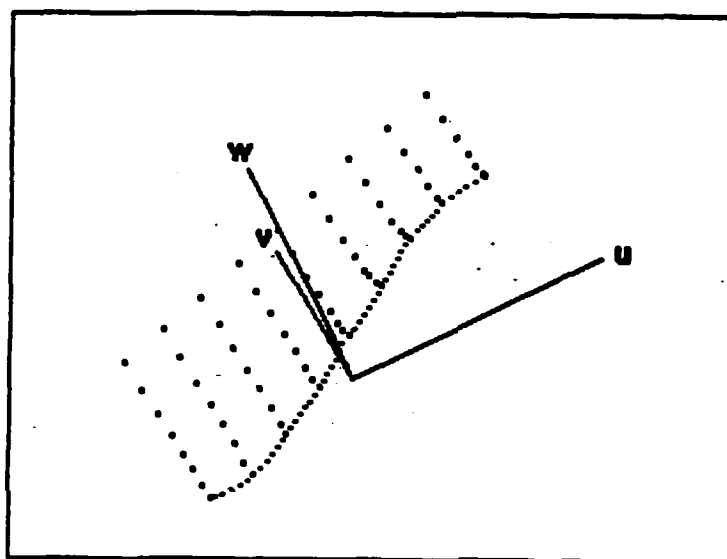
**FIGURE 2**  
**SMART Regression Functions**



We observe that the plots are quite linear for all cases with normal conditional distributions but distinctly nonlinear for the logistic cases. It was thought that example (a) might yield a nonlinear regression because of the random prior on  $\sigma$ . A numerical calculation of the actual conditional expectation of the mean given the sample mean and the sample variance verified that the regression surface was in fact fairly linear. A plot of this surface evaluated at a set of grid points is shown in Figure 3.

An actual real world data set was also analyzed using the fully nonparametric empirical Bayes scheme. The data was obtained from Efron-Morris (1975) and consists of the batting averages for 18 major league baseball players for their first 45 times at bat and their averages for the remainder of the season which represent the 'true' values one wishes to predict. Efron-Morris first transform the data to approximate normality using the arcsine transformation. They then compute the Stein estimator (Stein, 1955) and their own proposed estimator based on a linear empirical Bayes formula modified to limit the maximum component risk. The results are then converted back to proportions. For the present study the data was considered in its original form as a set of Bernoulli observations

**FIGURE 3**  
Conditional Mean =  $w$



$$u = \sum X_i, v = \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

(hits or non-hits) and the fully nonparametric empirical Bayes method was applied. The results are shown in Table 3. The third column gives the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) which is just the observed proportion of hits in the first 45 at bats. The nonparametric empirical Bayes estimate is given in the fourth column and Stein's estimate in the fifth. The Efron-Morris limited risk estimate with index .8 is given in the last column. The corresponding mean squared errors of prediction are shown in the last row.

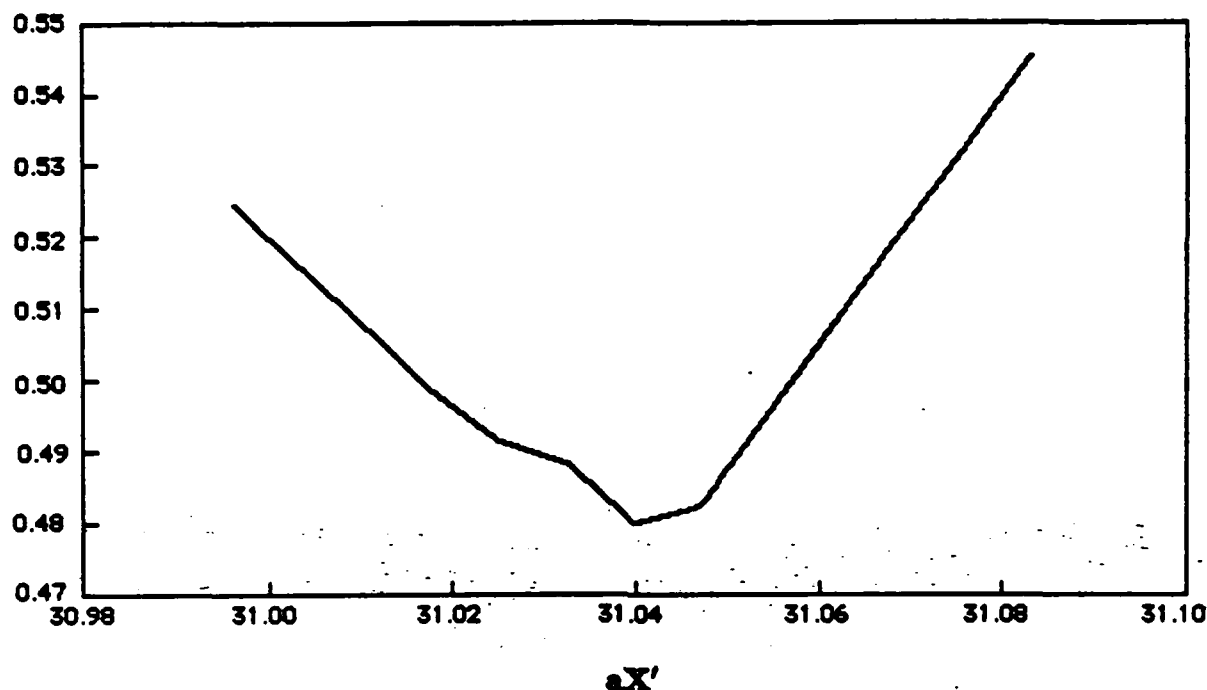
TABLE 3

## Batting Averages and Their Estimates

i	'TRUE' MLE	NP-EB STEIN	EMEST(.8)
1	.346	.400	.306
2	.298	.378	.293
3	.276	.356	.281
4	.222	.333	.269
5	.273	.311	.256
6	.270	.311	.256
7	.263	.289	.247
8	.210	.267	.247
9	.269	.244	.254
10	.230	.244	.254
11	.264	.222	.258
12	.256	.222	.258
13	.303	.222	.258
14	.264	.222	.258
15	.226	.222	.258
16	.285	.200	.266
17	.316	.178	.274
18	.200	.156	.283
M.S.E.	.00419	.00105	.00120

We observe that the procedure proposed in this study has the smallest mean squared error of prediction and does better than the Efron-Morris estimator in three out of the five cases ( $i = 1, 2, 3, 17, 18$ ) where their procedure limits the risk. The highly nonlinear regression function which SMART produces for this case is plotted in Figure 4. The abscissa of this figure is a linear function of the number of hits in 44 at bats.

FIGURE 4  
SMART Regression Function



#### 4. Concluding Remarks.

The estimation procedures discussed here may be modified and generalized in various ways. We may expect that ever more sophisticated nonparametric regression methods will be developed. Such procedures may then be substituted for the projection pursuit part of the scheme. The empirical Bayes problem described here assumes equal sample sizes for all component populations. The case of unequal sample sizes may be dealt with by various ad hoc methods some of which are discussed in the original paper (Johns, 1957). The question of the best way to proceed in such cases is still open.

In the preceding sections the quantities to be estimated were required to be represented as functionals of the form (3). However, within this framework we may estimate the conditional cdf  $F(t)$  for any fixed  $t$  by letting  $h(x)$  = the indicator function of the interval  $(-\infty, t]$ . Since  $F(t)$  can be recaptured, it should be possible modify the procedure to

permit the estimation other functionals  $T(F)$  such as, e.g., the median of  $F$ .

As is true of most empirical Bayes problems, the present one may be reinterpreted as a compound decision problem by dropping the assumption of the existence of a prior probability distribution, and replacing it with a suitable empirical distribution of unknown quantities. In the present case these quantities are the component cdf's  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_m$ . Presumably results paralleling the empirical Bayes results would be forthcoming here as in previously considered problems. (See Robbins (1951) for the original formulation of the key ideas and Gilliland (1968) and Johns (1967) for some further developments.)

The SMART algorithm used in the applications considered in this study requires the specification of certain operating parameters. The most significant of these was found to be the span parameter controlling the variable span smoother. This was assigned a value of either 0.6 or 0.7 for all of the examples considered.

Finally, the author wishes to express his thanks to David J. Pasta who rendered invaluable assistance in the application of the SMART algorithm to the data of this study.

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